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ABSTRACT

An overview is presented of research findings on how teacher expectations of student performance may alter the ways that teachers treat students, and the possible negative effects of such differential treatment on the behavior and learning of students for whom the teacher holds low expectations. A discussion follows on the teaching implications of research findings that point to effective ways to improve student performance. Findings are discussed on the topics of: (1) when and how to praise students; (2) the effective use of questions; and (3) student seat assignments in the classroom. Brief descriptions are offered of five exemplary teacher inservice programs focusing on teacher expectations. References are included. (JD)

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Teacher Expectations Action Packet

Research, Strategies and Programs for Special Populations

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RBS

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INTRODUCTION

The Special Populations Project at Research for Better Schools, Inc. (RBS) has developed a school improvement model to improve the responsiveness of educational programs to the needs of low achieving, at-risk students. The model consists of an assessment procedure, to examine the support and services provided to these students, and action packets, to assist with the implementation of improvements in identified areas of need.

This is one in a series of nine action packets. Each action packet addresses a separate factor on the Assessment of School Needs for Special Populations survey. The purpose of an action packet is to review research related to its factor and to present implications for practice. The action packets are to be used to support existing school or district strategies to improve educational programming for at-risk, low achieving students. Examples of ways to implement the action packet include:

- providing the school's existing task force or planning committee with information for planning and establishing school priorities
- acting as a resource document for staff development
- acting as a resource document for developing student programs (e.g., summer school program, alternative educational program, academic advising program)
- supporting academic advisors, teachers, and other school staff in involving parents of the target group in their children's education.

The final version of the action packet will include more specific suggestions concerning how these materials might be used to assist in school improvement efforts. These suggestions will be derived from RBS's documentation of the implementation of the action packets during the pilot of the school improvement model.

Action packets are divided into three sections: (1) review of the problem, (2) teaching implications, and (3) examples of relevant education programs.

REVIEW OF THE PROBLEM

The importance of teacher expectations and their potential impact upon student performance was dramatized with Rosenthal and Jacobson's, Pygmalion in the Classroom (1968). Their findings suggested that teacher expectations for student performance can function as a self-fulfilling prophecy. Despite some strong criticisms of their methodology and data analysis (Brophy & Good, 1970), many subsequent studies supported the existence of expectations effects (Rosenthal & Rubin, 1978; Smead, 1984) which have sometimes been described as sustaining rather than causing student achievement differences (Cooper, 1979; Good et al., 1980). In a review of the literature, Cooper (1979) writes:

> For now, then, it seems best to conclude that expectations influence performance, but they likely sustain it at a preexisting level or allow innate differences in student performance to emerge rather than radically alter its course. (p. 392).

Research findings with respect to teacher expectations can be summarized quite simply: teacher expectations of student performance may alter the ways that teachers treat students; this differential treatment may have a negative effect on the behavior and learning of students for whom teachers hold low expectations.

Several investigators since the Rosenthal and Jacobson study have examined how teacher expectancies are communicated to students. Using classroom observations, Brophy and Good (1970) examined student teacher interactions and found that teachers demand better performance from those children for whom they have higher expectations. Teachers are also more likely to praise the performance of high expectation students and to accept poor performance from low expectation students.

An important outcome of research on teacher expectations has been the

identification of different ways in which teachers may treat high and low achieving students. The most common differential behaviors include:

- seating slow students farther from the teacher or in a group (Good, 1981; Rist, 1970)
- criticizing lows more often for failure (Brophy & Good, 1970; Good, 1982)
- praising lows less frequently for success (Brophy & Good, 1970; Good 1982)
- rewarding lows for incorrect answers (Good, 1982; Weinstein, 1976)
- providing low achieving students with briefer, less accurate, and less detailed feedback (Cooper 1979; Good, 1981, 1982)
- providing lows with less feedback about their responses (Good, 1981)
- waiting less time for lows to answer questions (Allington, 1980; Good, 1981)
- not staying with lows in failure situations (i.e., not providing clues, asking follow-up questions) (Brophy & Good 1970; Good, 1981, 1982; Kerman, 1979)
- calling on lows less often to respond to questions (Brophy & Good, 1974; Good 1981, 1982; Kerman, 1979)
- generally paying less attention to lows or interacting with them less frequently (Good, 1982; Rist 1970)
- demanding less work and effort from lows (Good, 1981).

Taken together, the teacher behaviors listed above indicate that students for whom teachers hold low expectations have fewer opportunities to interact and participate in classroom activities. The cumulative effect of such differential treatment was studied over a three year period by Rist (1970) who found that, as low expectation students progressed through school, they made fewer efforts to get the teacher's attention and they gradually withdrew psychologically. In addition, low expectation students became more hostile and critical of others in their own group, although they did not direct their hostility toward the high expectation students.

It should be pointed out that there is nothing inherently wrong with teachers having different expectations for different students. Teachers should continually assess student progress and attempt to tailor their teaching to individual student needs. The difficulty occurs, however, when students believed to be low achievers fail to learn adequately because they are not treated more like students who are believed to be good students. Teachers should believe that all students can learn and provide all students with appropriate learning opportunities.

Other studies have demonstrated that some teachers do not show a consistent pattern of sharply differential interaction toward low and high achieving students. Based on a large pool of observational studies from one geographic region, Good (1980) estimates that only one-third of the teachers acted in ways which could have exaggerated differences between high and low achieving students. Moreover, Brophy (1982) argues that on the average, only a five percent difference in student achievement outcomes can be attributed to teacher expectations. Finally, it has been shown that some teachers not only appear to treat students similarly regardless of expectations, but also may "bend over backwards" to support learning where past performance indicates the existence of problems (Brophy & Good, 1974).

Most likely, the nature and degree of teacher expectation effects observed in a particular classroom vary with the teacher's personal characteristics and beliefs about teaching and learning. Brophy (1982) argues that three major teacher characteristics affect student expectations: (1) the teacher's role definition (i.e., degree to which the teacher is willing to assume personal responsibility for student learning), (2) rigidity versus flexibility of teacher expectations, and (3) the degree to which expectations about individual students are salient and taken into

account in planning and delivering instruction. Other potential candidates include a teacher's general level of intelligence, cognitive complexity, locus of control, sense of efficacy, causal attribution patterns, cognitive style, tolerance for ambiguity, and various coping and defense mechanisms. More research is needed to substantiate the ways in which these characteristics interact to produce predictable outcomes.

Whether or not teachers have different expectations for or behave differently toward minority students has also been examined. Most of these studies compare black and white children and/or teachers. For example, Rubovits and Maehr (1973) observed white female student teachers and found that they treated black junior high students less positively than their white classmates. In addition, Washington (1980) found that black and white teachers ascribed more negative characteristics than positive characteristics to black children. In a later study, Washington (1982) found these same results for both black and white elementary school teachers. Washington explained the negative perceptions of black teachers for black students by suggesting that black teachers can identify with growing up as Afro-Americans and are therefore pushing black students to excel.

Teacher expectations seem to exert more influence on elementary school students than on secondary school students. Typically, young students are more impressionable, more oriented toward pleasing adults, and more willing to accept the authority role of the teacher. As students grow older, their needs become more differentiated and the significant others who provide feedback and goal directive motivation are no longer largely restricted to parents and teachers. Students begin to rely more on themselves, their peers, and other adults (e.g., coaches, employers) for such direction.

Cooper (1979) hypothesizes that teachers' potential for expectation effects depends in part on their need for control (more specifically, their fear of loss of control) when interacting with students. He cites research indicating that teachers perceive themselves as more able to predict and control student behavior when dealing with high rather than low expectation students, when interacting in private rather than in public, and when the teacher rather than the student initiates the interaction. To the extent that teachers fear loss of control, they will be anxious to avoid public interaction with low expectation students. As a result, these teachers may call on low expectation students less often, ignore or refuse student attempts to initiate questions or comments, and in general, treat students with less warmth and encouragement. They may even withhold praise for the accomplishments of low expectations students and criticize them more for failure in order to reduce the frequency of interaction with such students.

In interpreting the literature on teacher expectations, it is important to note that teacher expectations are not formed and acted upon in a vacuum; they can be confronted by student expectations, both for themselves and for their teachers. In a correlational study utilizing first graders, Brophy and Good (1970) report that, "the highs seek out the teacher and initiate interactions with her (sic.) more frequently than the lows. . . the highs much more frequently show their work. . . or ask questions about it" (p. 368). The possibility of student as active agent in the expectancy drama has been examined by manipulating student as well as teacher expectations. For example, Haynes and Johnson (1983) told a group of black college freshman enrolled in a compensatory education program and/or their teachers, that these students had been identified as above average by the Office of Research and Evaluation. No such information was provided to a

control group. The results showed that high self expectations had a significant effect, as measured by grade point average, whereas heightened teacher expectations had no effect. Other studies report that student expectations have had either a similar or greater impact than that of teachers (Tuckman & Bierman, 1971; Rappaport & Rappaport, 1975).

TEACHING IMPLICATIONS

Research on teacher and school effectivenesses indicates that higher expectations for student achievement are part of a pattern of differential attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors that characterize teachers and schools that are successful in maximizing their students' learning gains. For example, Brookover et al. (1979) found that, in effective schools, teachers not only held higher expectations, but acted on them by setting goals expressed as minimally acceptable standards. Others (e.g., Brophy, 1982) have cautioned that unrealistically high expectations for students will lead to inappropriate instruction and ultimately will depress, rather than enhance, achievement. Similarly, equal expectations for all students or treating all students in the exact same manner may not work well.

Optimal instruction implies that teachers will begin with expectations which are accurate, realistically based, and open to corrective feedback. One approach to achieving such realistic expectations is to encourage students to stretch their minds and achieve as much as they can while continuously monitoring their academic performance. In the beginning of each school year, teachers should gather information about their students' prior learning by examining test data and school records and by objectively evaluating their students' performance on various types of academic activities. Furthermore, as the year progresses, these initial expectations should be constantly re-examined and revised so that expectations are always based on present performance--not past history.

Use of Praise and Criticism

A teacher behavior often cited in the expectations literature is the use of praise and criticism. Brophy (1981a) defines praise as a positive

response to students' good work or conduct that goes beyond mere affirmation or positive feedback. Thus, when teachers nod their heads, give letter grades, or say "okay," "right," or "correct," they are not praising students. Rather, teacher praise involves expressing surprise, delight, or excitement and/or placing the students' behavior in context by giving information about its value and its implications for students' status. Conversely, criticism refers to a negative teacher response and connotes expressions of disapproval, disgust, or rejection.

In a review of research on teaching behaviors related to pupil achievement, Rosenshine (1971) found some evidence that high rates of approval were associated with higher pupil achievement, while high rates of disapproval were associated with lower pupil achievement. In support of these findings, Brophy and Evertson (1976) reported that, for second and third graders, the use of symbolic rewards (e.g., gold stars, smiling faces placed upon papers to be taken home or on wall charts) was consistently positively associated with learning gains. When examining the effects of symbolic rewards on older children, Stewart and White (1977) concluded that it is not the teacher comment alone which is most likely to improve these students' performance, but the comment in conjunction with a letter grade.

While some investigators seem to suggest that praise is generally beneficial, others have concluded that praise may be unrelated to student progress (Brophy, 1981a, 1981b; Frechtling, 1984; Silvernail, 1979). Brophy (1979) summarized what we know about the effects of praise on student learning when he wrote that "praise correlates sometimes positively, sometimes negatively, but usually not at all with learning" (p. 35). He suggests that the relationship between praise and achievement depends more on contextual factors such as student ability level, teacher verses student

initiation, and specification and elaboration of praise itself. However, praise does seem to correlate weakly but positively with student achievement in low-SES or low ability classes (Brophy & Evertson, 1976).

When to Praise

It may be that teachers need to know more about when and how to praise before students can benefit from their praising. Brophy (1981a) suggests the following guidelines concerning when to praise.

- Praise genuine progress or accomplishments.

  Teachers should concentrate their praise on genuine milestones and should not endanger their credibility by praising overly often and vociferously.

- Praise when students may not realize or appreciate their accomplishments.

  Teachers should use praise to enumerate specific noteworthy aspects of the students' accomplishments. This type of praise can deepen understanding of and appreciation for what they have done.

- Praise students who respond well to praise.

  Teachers should avoid publicly praising students who are embarrassed or otherwise put off by praise. Teachers who believe that such students need reinforcement can provide it in other ways (e.g., giving high grades or other symbols of accomplishment; inviting students to allow accomplishments to be displayed; asking questions which show interest in the accomplishment).

How to Praise

The following are Brophy's (1981a) suggestions concerning how to praise.

- Praise should be informative or appreciative, but not controlling.

  Praise should provide information to students about their competence or about the value of their accomplishments and it should orient them towards a better appreciation of their thinking and problem solving abilities. Also, as much as possible, praise should focus on students' task-relevant behaviors and not on the teacher as an external authority figure.

- Praise should be contingent upon objective accomplishment.

  While implied earlier, this criterion means that teachers should not praise low-quality performance (unless it represents clear progress) or incorrect answers (unless they indicate creativity or other aspects of good thinking).

- Praise should specify the particulars of the accomplishment.

  Global statements like "that's good" are not very informative and in the case of young children may be taken as moralistic statements.

- Praise should show variety and other signs of credibility.

  Effective praise should leave students convinced that the teacher has considered the performance carefully and means what he or she says. Students tend to ignore teachers who respond with bland uniformity or repetition of a few shopworn phrases.

- Praise should be natural rather than theatrical or intrusive.

  Praise should be simple and direct, delivered in a natural voice without over dramatizing. Teachers should also back verbal praise with nonverbal communication of approval.

- Most praise should be private.

  Although there is nothing wrong with spontaneous expressions of admiration during public recitations, it is probably best if teachers reserve most of their premeditated praise for private interactions with individuals. When praise concerns good written assignments, it can be helpful if the verbal message is supplemented with indicators of excellence placed on the assignment itself (e.g., a large A+, a brief written comment, a gold star).

- Praise should be individualized.

  Students' own prior accomplishments (not accomplishments of peers) should be the basis for describing present accomplishments. Teachers should limit praise to performances which they believe students also perceive as praise worthy. Thus, bright students should not be praised for work which did not challenge them, but slow students might be praised for work that nevertheless represents real progress for them.

- Praise should attribute success to effort and ability.

  Praise should imply that students have succeeded because they possess the required abilities and have expended the necessary effort and that, assuming comparable effort, similar success can be expected in the future. Success should not be attributed to luck or ease of task.

- Praise should attribute effort expenditure to intrinsic motivation.

  To the extent that the praise statement says anything about why the students were working on the task, it should imply that the students expend effort on such tasks because they enjoy them. There should be no mention of intrinsic motives (e.g., to please the teacher, to win a competition or reward).

Effective Use of Questions

Another teacher behavior often cited in the expectations literature is the effective use of questions in the classroom. Like praise and criticism, questioning is also not a static or innate teacher characteristic, but a quality open to alteration through study, practice, and feedback.

Selecting Students To Respond

In small groups, a predictable pattern of questioning ensures that every student has an opportunity to participate orally in the lesson. This is particularly helpful to slow students, as they tend to be reticent, and it puts bolder ones on notice that everyone is expected to take part. In a correlational study, Brophy and Evertson (1976) found that the reading achievement of primary grade students increased when the teacher called on students in ordered turns for activities such as reading new words and reading a story out loud. They also found that, in general, the number of student call-outs was negatively related to achievement. However, for low achieving students the frequency of call-outs was positively related to achievement. This later finding led Brophy and Evertson to conclude that it is best to get low-achieving students to respond in any fashion.

Others have pointed out that although the principle of ordered turns works well for small groups of students, the procedure would be inappropriate with whole-class instruction (Morgan & Schreiber, 1969). When a

teacher is working with a whole class, it is usually most efficient to select certain students to respond and to call on volunteers than to attempt systematic turns. The Program on Teacher Effectiveness (1976) recommends that teachers call on volunteers only 10 to 15 percent of the time.

One technique for obtaining a high frequency of responses in a minimum amount of time is through group responding. This technique is particularly useful when students are learning material that needs to be overlearned, such as decoding, word lists, and number facts. Its advantages are that it allows a teacher to monitor the learning of all students effectively and quickly; it allows the teacher to correct the entire group when errors are made; and it makes the drilling process seem like a game. One disadvantage might be that unless the teacher provides students with training and insists on the group responding in unison, slower students may delay their answers a fraction of a second and echo the faster students, or may not respond at all.

Eliciting Student Response

To encourage wide participation during a question and answer session, teachers should be sure to ask questions of the low-achieving students and others who do not ordinarily respond. If a student is shy, the alert teacher should watch for a time when the student is well prepared and then ask a question the student is able to answer. For those students who do not respond because of their limited abilities, the teacher should rephrase the question, add clues, or ask a related question in order to elicit a response no matter how minor or brief it may appear.

One difficulty some teachers experience in asking questions is in waiting long enough for the student to respond. Research shows that

students who are given three to five seconds to respond increase the length and number of their responses, change their cognitive processes to more complex ones, and begin to ask more questions (Rowe, 1978). Others have shown that an increase in teacher wait-time--defined as the length of the pause preceding a teacher utterance--correlates positively with student achievement in the upper elementary grades (Tobin & Capie, 1982). In short, teachers should ask one question at a time and should wait for a student to respond. This teacher behavior conveys the expectation that a response will be given and that the teacher is willing to listen.

Another strategy is for teachers to encourage low ability students to ask their own questions. Research shows that, once alert to the need for student questions, teachers can succeed in increasing their frequency (Hyman, 1982). Singer (1978) urges what he calls "active comprehension." He points out that when reading students formulate their own questions to guide their thinking, they have a stake in the responses, develop a more positive attitude, and become more independent in the learning process. Other researchers agree that when students ask each other questions and answer them, comprehension is better than when they respond only to the teacher's questions (Ortiz, 1977). Also, this approach teaches students to think about and to be sensitive to the thoughts of others (Morgan & Schreiber, 1969).

Phrasing The Question

In asking questions to low ability students and others, teachers should be sure their questions are clear and concise. For example, don't ask "why was John Kennedy elected President?" which could produce the perfectly legitimate answer, "because he got the most electoral votes." Ask instead, "what did the article say? What were some of the reasons

people voted for John Kennedy?" One way to be more precise in asking a question is to give clues in the question which indicate specific examples of the information requested.

Teachers should also minimize the use of leading questions, rhetorical questions, and directions phrased as questions. That is, they should ask only those questions to which they want students to respond on their own. Avoid questions like "don't you think the federal government should give financial support to U.S. athletes sent to the Olympic games?" and "now, why don't we all turn to page 101 in our workbooks?" (Hyman, 1982)

Student Seat Assignments

A final teaching behavior which has been found to covary with teacher expectations is student seat assignment in the classroom. Adam and Biddle (1970) videotaped 16 classrooms at grade levels one, six, and eleven. In all cases, students most likely to be asked questions or asked to participate in discussions were seated in a specific area of the classroom (i.e., in a T-shaped area with the top of the T at the center-front of the room and the stem of the T extending down the middle of the room). Moreover, the majority of student responses (63 percent) were from students who were in one of the first three seats in the stem of the T.

Unfortunately, Adam and Biddle did not examine the ability level of students seated in the T-shaped area. However, one teaching strategy which may increase classroom participation of low ability students is to seat them in the key T positions. At the same time, teachers should attempt to overcome the tendency to focus on just a few students and should make an effort to call on students located in various positions in the room.

In addition, observational studies of classrooms have shown that

students perceived as most able are frequently seated together and teachers tend to spend more time working with and standing near these students (Rist, 1972). To counteract these behaviors, teachers should seat high and low ability students next to each other. Teachers should also attempt to be within arm's reach of the low achievers and to interact with them as frequently as with other students.

RELEVANT EDUCATION PROGRAMS

Some educators have taken a careful look at the literature on teacher expectations and have included salient findings in their teacher training programs. The following are some of these exemplary programs:

- The Communications Workshop (CSW)
- Effective Teaching for Higher Achievement
- Project Inservice (formerely PATL)
- Teacher Expectations and Student Achievement Project (TESA)
- Priority One Initiative.

A brief overview of each of these five programs follows. This information serves as an additional resource for educators interested in improving teacher expectations.

TITLE: THE COMMUNICATIONS WORKSHOP (CWS)

AUDIENCE: Teachers of cross-graded, learning-disabled readers with remedial needs, special education teachers, and supplemental teachers.

DESCRIPTION: The Communications Workshop is an alternative classroom management system which provides training for teachers in skills, strategies, monitoring capabilities, and attitudes necessary for implementing a cost-effective basic skills reading program. Five essential elements support the Communications Workshop model. They are:

- a personal, humanistic philosophy
- an activities monitoring system
- a program monitoring system
- student motivation strategies
- intervention strategies.

Developing high teacher expectations for students and building strong teacher-student relationships are part of the training program. The program's humanistic philosophy is based upon respect for the student as an individual and on the teacher's role in creating a learning environment. A family-like atmosphere fosters students' personal pride and positive response to discipline. The student monitoring system focuses on observation of the student's use of time as well as quality and level of completed work. Individualized student programs are planned.

EFFECTIVENESS: The Joint Dissemination Review Panel (JDRP) of the US Department of Education (DOE) approved the program (1983).

COST: Initial costs are about $140 for four manuals ($35 per set).

CONTACT: Dr. Joseph A. Bukovec, Project Coordinator
Communications Workshop (CWS)
(Teaneck School System)
Forest Avenue
Teaneck, New Jersey 07666
(201) 833-5400 (High school)

TITLE: EFFECTIVE TEACHING FOR HIGHER ACHIEVEMENT

AUDIENCE: Teachers K-12, supervisors, administrators who supervise instruction.

DESCRIPTION: The major goals of the Effective Teaching for Higher Achievement Program are:

- to teach strategies for increasing the time used for academic instruction
- to show how teachers' expectations for student learning can affect instruction and achievement
- to provide practical techniques that improve the quality of instruction.

This is a six part staff development program. Parts one and two emphasize classroom management, part three focuses on influencing student behavior, part four deals with teacher expectations (instruments for self and peer assessment of teacher expectations are included), and parts five and six provide methods to design quality instruction. Videotaped lectures and documentary information about each topic as well as a training manual are featured.

The publisher recommends scheduling 1 1/2 to 2 hours inservice for each topic, with four week intervals between each topic.

EFFECTIVENESS: Teachers made significant changes in their teaching behavior.

COST: Two videotapes and the training manual cost $450 for ASCD members; $495 for non-members; or a rental fee of $50 per tape (includes a manual). A preview tape may be rented for $30 for two days.

CONTACT: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development
225 North Washington Street
Alexandra, Virginia 22314
(703) 549-9110

TITLE: PROJECT INSERVICE (formerly, Positive Attitudes Toward Learning, PATL)

AUDIENCE: Teachers K-12.

DESCRIPTION: Project Inservice provides classroom-based inservice training to teachers in areas identified by effective schools research, such as school climate, school effectiveness, and student achievement and attitude. There are four individualized learning packages or kits, each with its own teaching competencies. The titles of the kits are:

- Classroom Communication and Management
- Active Involvement
- Process of Learning
- Individualized Instruction.

At least two faculty per building must be trained as Kit Advisors or inservice specialists. Training requires 2-4 days. Twenty hours in a 3-4 month period are needed for teachers to complete each kit.

EFFECTIVENESS: Approved by JDRP as an exemplary educational program (1983).

COST: $500 plus $12 per teacher for training. Other costs include stipends for Kit Advisors (travel, per diem, plus $100 per day).

CONTRACT: John D. Zirges, Director or
Charles Pelan, Inservice Specialist
Bethalto Unit #8 Schools
322 East Central
Bethalto, Illinois 62010
(618) 377-7213

TITLE: TEACHER EXPECTATIONS AND STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT PROJECT (TESA)

AUDIENCE: A staff development program for teachers K-12.

DESCRIPTION: The TESA program sensitizes teachers to their frequently subtle and unintended negative treatment of low achieving children in classrooms. TESA provides teachers with specific behavior alternatives for counteracting such treatment. Fifteen teaching strategies that improve classroom performance of both high and low achieving students form the basis of TESA.

In the complete training program, five workshops each three hours long, are scheduled one month apart. Literature and research are presented and discussed. Demonstrations and roleplaying activities are also included. In each workshop three major strands are covered:

Interaction Model

Strand A Response Opportunities	Strand B Feedback	Strand C Personal Regard
1. Equitable distribution	1. Affirm/correct	1. Proximity
2. Individual help	2. Praise	2. Courtesy
3. Latency	3. Reasons for praise	3. Personal interest and compliments
4. Delving	4. Listening	4. Touching
5. Higher-level questions	5. Accepting feelings	5. Desist

EFFECTIVENESS: For a summary, see results of a three year study cited in Kerman, S. (1979). Teacher expectations and student achievement, Phil Delta Kappan, 60(10), 716-718.

COST: Introductory training sessions are nationally offered by Phi Delta Kappa, which will send cost and workshop schedules upon request.

CONTACT: Wilmer K. Bugher
Center for the Dissemination of Innovative Programs
Phi Delta Kappa
P.O. Box 7891
Bloomington, Indiana 47402

TITLE: PRIORITY ONE INITIATIVE: A WORKPLAN FOR SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT

AUDIENCE: Priority One Initiative is a comprehensive educational improvement plan for schools identified as needing additional assistance to achieve their educational objectives.

DESCRIPTION: Asserting that no one intervention is adequate, Priority One Initiative works on many levels simultaneously, drawing on theories of organizational change and the effective schools literature. A component of this comprehensive program is staff development. One goal of the staff development component is to enhance student self-esteem by structuring ways for teachers to interact with students and parents. The staff development component encompasses training teachers to use a broad repertoire of effective teacher strategies including:

- a foundation of high expectations of students
- planning strategies
- content strategies
- instructional strategies
- classroom management strategies
- evaluation strategies.

The first training component, a foundation of high expectations of students, stresses the explicit and implicit ways teachers can convey expectations. The workshops focus on: verbal signals, such as tone of voice, feedback, and choice of language; non-verbal signals, such as wait time and body language; task orientation; physical environment, such as organization of materials and space; and level of student engagement such as time on task.

EFFECTIVENESS: The program is being evaluated locally.

COST: In-district cost of the Philadelphia School District.

CONTACT: Dr. Earline Sloan
Office of Affective Education
Curriculum and Instructional Development
Room 119
Board of Education
2180 Street S. of the Parkway
Philadelphia, PA 19103

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